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The JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

Social Group Work

ARTHUR J. TODD, *Editor*

Government and Education

FRANCIS J. BROWN, *Editor*

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THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

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EDITORIAL

At the annual meeting of the Educational Sociology Section of the American Sociological Society in Atlantic City, December 1937, the following motion was unanimously approved:

That *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, the official publication of the Section, devote the December 1938 issue to the publication of the papers to be discussed at the 1938 meeting of the Section;

That the December issue be made available to all interested in the activities of the Section upon the payment of fifty cents, twenty-five cents of which shall be used by the Section to establish a permanent mailing list, the remainder to reimburse *The Journal* for the cost of publication and mailing the issue.

The first Section meeting will be devoted to the newer techniques in group work. Due to the inevitable nature of relief, it has been primarily individual in its approach. It is increasingly recognized that social therapy must supplement individual care; that social attitudes contribute to rehabilitation.

The problem for discussion at the second meeting of the Section is one of vital import for the future of public education, the relation of Federal and State government to the public school.

The American public school developed as an expression of the needs of the local community. For almost two centuries the control

and support of the school—which gradually shifted from private and religious agencies to public responsibility—were retained by the local district or town. With the development of the school board, its members were representatives of the community and reflected its interests. There was a sense of pride in the expanding educational facilities offered. In rural districts, the one-room rural school was theirs in a very literal sense. The trustees hired and fired the teacher, determined the curriculum, and set the length of the school term.

No one will deny that there were weaknesses in such a system, that glaring inequalities existed, that teachers were selected often with little regard for their preparation to teach. It was a natural development that the last three quarters of a century should have been characterized by the development of State support, supervision, and control. There is still little uniformity in the degree to which the State has taken over responsibility from the community. The amount of State support varies from less than two per cent of the cost of education to that in which the State pays practically the entire cost. The same wide variation is found in the degree of control, from suggested State syllabi and little supervision to required courses of study, State prescription of certification of teachers, and constant supervision through State inspectors and State examinations.

While there were early efforts on the part of the Federal Government to encourage public education, no definite trend is observable until the turn of the present century. The depression brought the problem of support of the public schools into sharp focus. The proposed legislation seeks to establish permanently the principle of Federal aid to public education.

Despite the success or failure of proposed legislation to be enacted into law, or the degree of State aid and control, there is a definite and accelerating trend toward State support and control and toward Federal support of education.

Two extremely significant questions emerge from an analysis of these trends. Does financial aid necessarily imply control of public education? and To what degree is it possible and desirable to retain local initiative and local pride in the expanding services of the public school?

FRANCIS J. BROWN

*Program of Meeting of the
Educational Sociology Section of the American Sociological Society*

THE BOOK-CADILLAC HOTEL, DETROIT, MICHIGAN

December 28, Luncheon meeting, 12.00 o'clock

Professor Arthur J. Todd, Northwestern University, Chairman

Topic: Social Group Work in Theory and Application

"The Contribution of Social Work to Sociological Theory and Educational Practice," Neva L. Boyd, Northwestern University

"The Operation of Group Principles in Social Work," Josephine Strode

December 30, Morning meeting, 9.00-11.00 o'clock

Professor Francis J. Brown, New York University, Chairman

Topic: The Government and Education

"The Federal Government and Education," Howard A. Dawson, Director of Rural Service, NEA, Washington, D. C.

"The State and Education," Herbert L. Spencer, President of Pennsylvania College for Women

THE CONTRIBUTION OF SOCIAL GROUP WORK TO EDUCATION AND SOCIAL THEORY

NEVA L. BOYD

Northwestern University

Professional group work has developed during the past forty years as a welfare rather than an educational movement, its purpose being the providing for constructive leisure, particularly in the form of the play of children and the recreation of adolescent youth. The theory and methodology employed in group work are, however, being applied increasingly in dealing with groups of persons in other fields such as education, case work, consumer coöperatives, and as correctional and therapeutic measures in State institutions and hospitals.

As might be expected, many different types of youth organizations have developed under private auspices in addition to vast recreational systems provided under public administration, all with the welfare of youth as a common purpose but with considerable difference in specific objectives and still greater divergence in theory and practice.

Because of this lack of standardization the writer must be held responsible for the ideologies set forth in this paper. In treating the subject of the contribution of group work to education it is necessary to posit as a premise certain general principles, one of which is the biological principle of the organism as a whole as presented by Professor C. M. Child in his *Physiological Foundations of Behavior*. This principle is now so generally accepted as to require only a brief statement. Child says:

Life, as we see it, particularly in the highest animals, and man, is a series of excitations with the resulting equilibration of the organic mechanisms to the exciting changes.

He further states:

So far as its developmental aspects are concerned, then, life may be

regarded as a continuous series of regulations, or in the words of Spencer as "continuous adjustment of internal relations to external relations."

The second principle, which is based on the first, is Count Korzybski's theory of abstracting (in his *Science and Sanity*), by which he recognizes the process of abstracting as basic in human behavior. This theory avoids the unfortunate connotation attached to the word learning, which implies what is only partially true—that there is something set up to be learned, and that learning it is the matter of primary importance, whereas Count Korzybski's theory makes abstracting a mechanism basic to learning, and what is learned, or abstracted, a matter of educational content. By his theory of Orders of Abstraction, Korzybski avoids the body-mind separation almost invariably implied by the term learning. He says, "The standard meaning of . . . 'abstracting' implies 'selecting,' 'picking out,' 'separating,' 'summarizing,' 'deducting.' . . . On the neurological level, what the nervous system does is abstracting, of which the *summation, integration, are only special aspects*." (Italics are mine.) "... It is not difficult to see that the term 'abstracting' implies 'abstracting from something' and so involves the environment as an implication." He further states, in substance, that while what he calls first-order abstractions or abstractions of lower order correspond roughly to senses, or immediate feelings, they do not imply the separation of mind and body. By the same token, while his term abstractions of higher orders corresponds to so-called mental processes, it does not imply the exclusion of body or senses.

The acceptance of the theory of the organism as a whole, together with Korzybski's theory of abstracting, leads logically to centering education in the functioning of the whole organism, and to the recognition of the functional relation of organism and environment as basic to education, even as the genesis of learning.

Since the free functioning of the organism in the environmental situation is basic in education, the educational situation must be set up to permit such functioning, and the limits of the abstracting

capacity of the individual must be determined by this functional relationship rather than by mental or other tests in current use. Experience has shown that the degree and type of stimulation in the form of various orders of abstraction, characteristic of this educational process, produce results in increased capacity in the individual unobtainable under other methods. This method employed in an experiment extending over a period of seven years, with some two thousand patients in the Lincoln (Illinois) State School and Colony, a school for the mentally deficient, showed increased capacity in all classes of patients.

This relationship of the individual and environment cannot be logically conceived in the old sense of the influence of environment on the individual. Rather environment conceived in the light of the principles here laid down indicates a functional unity of environment and organism constituting a process of modification involving both.

The acceptance of these principles is, by implication, a condemnation of the prescribed courses of study characteristic of the current educational systems, and calls for a reorganization of formal education. The older method confines education too exclusively to verbal and highly abstract content while some of the present-day so-called progressive schools tend to keep education to the low order type of content, whereas both types of content are necessary. A reorganization of education must include both, for education must be rooted in, but not too largely confined to, first-hand experience with what has been called brute fact.

Another aspect of abstracting from facts—the object world, events, situations, etc.—is evaluating. Evaluations range between physiological feelings of comfort or discomfort and social judgments determined largely by cultural patterns—customs, mores, institutions, etc.; and all evaluations include emotional tonus, which I choose to call feeling content. This type of evaluation is present not alone in what we habitually consider emotional situations, but is an in-

evitable aspect of the whole range of orders of abstracting from the crudest sensations to the most refined intuitions and convictions including what we call conscience.

But our chief concern for the moment is the significance of feeling content in education. To illustrate its significance in academic education: a first-grade teacher in a Chicago public school worked out her own system of teaching reading to first-grade children. As they came into the schoolroom in the morning, she engaged the children in informal conversation for the purpose of getting them to express themselves freely, and, as she said, "to get them emotionally released." When they "came to order," she asked what story they should tell together. In expounding her method she described the creating of a story entitled "A Rainy Day." The day was in fact a rainy one. After the children had related, among others, such facts, as "the water splashed when the cars went by," "Mary wore her sister's galoshes," and "Josephine had an umbrella," the teacher wrote the sentences on the board and the children read the whole story in concert. She then covered the board leaving one sentence exposed, and called for volunteers to read it. Having exposed all the sentences in this way, she treated words similarly.

Thus the verbal abstractions were made on the basis of a situation, coming to school in the rain, an experience shared by all, and by the method of making the abstractions, with the force of feeling content preserved. For example, when the children made the statement, "This is a rainy day," it was made with the inclusion of the feeling of wetness, coldness, splashing, etc.; hence the verbalized abstraction expressing the gross similarities of their mutual experience still left them free to include their individual difference in feeling content. This method utilized the learning with the whole body in first-hand experience in the situation from which the abstraction was made.

The teacher stated that according to the system of educational measurement employed in the Chicago public-school system, these

first-grade children ranked first in reading ability including vocabulary and spelling. And, what is equally significant, the children were not subjected to drill and were happy in the process of learning.

It would be unfair to ignore facts other than feeling content which obviously contributed to the children's learning ability. The fact that they made their own abstractions enabled them to produce a story meaningful to them. Also, their learning was no doubt facilitated by breaking up the whole story into its parts rather than learning it as an undifferentiated whole. Omitting analysis, words such as galoshes and umbrella in written form might have been unintelligible to them when seen apart from the context.

Such a system of teaching is quite different from a textbook story about a rainy day even though the verbalized content might be identical, and different also from learning words as such, then bringing them together to make a story.

The point at which this system differs from the older systems, however, and to which I wish to call attention specifically is the abstracting from a situation in which the feeling content is utilized as a force in academic learning. But to imply that feeling content is merely an adjunct to academic learning would be false. It is in fact a reality present in some degree in all situations and, as has been said, constitutes much of the stuff of conscience, convictions, intuitions, and the like, whether these are related to what we choose to call social behavior or to the more subjective so-called spiritual values.

Even though the reality of feeling content cannot be denied, formal education has chosen to act as though it either does not exist or as if it could be disregarded with impunity, and social philosophy has always tended to regard it as something of a yellow dog in human nature.

Regardless of the label attached to it or how it is appraised, it is a reality and one which is a force in life, for it is largely the seat of

sin and virtue, morality and immorality, social adjustment and maladjustment, hence must be treated as a reality.

It would seem that not only should due consideration be given feeling content as it arises spontaneously, but that it might well be included as a phase of planned education. In such planning the situation, or environment, lends itself to a considerable degree to control through the choice of activities, and therein lies the educator's greatest opportunity.

While the fact that the organism behaves as a whole has rightly been stressed, it must be noted that some situations call forth higher abstractions—a problem in physics, for example—in which there may be a minimum of feeling content; or, again, a sport, such as skating, may be largely feeling content. It is possible, then, to select situations that call for an emphasis on one or another of these widely different types of abstractions. Group and recreation workers utilize the whole range of orders of abstractions, neglecting at no point the feeling content. They have, moreover, become so aware of the force of the feeling content in life, as it affects happiness and healthy living, that they have sought to include the heritage of social arts—play, sports, drama, music, dancing, etc.—as a part of a constructive program of social education.

In considering the contribution of group work to education two aspects stand out in my thinking as important to education: one, the utilization of the *mechanism* of behaving in relation to a social group situation; the other, the recognition of the *force of the situation* as a determinant of behavior.

To make the discussion of the mechanism of behaving in relation to a situation specific I shall, for the sake of clarity, select a game as a type of situation. A game may be defined as a problem situation temporarily and imaginatively set up. Playing the game is the process by which the problem is solved. While the situation is to a degree rigidly determined by the rules of the game, there is still freedom for experimentation, judgment, etc. To illustrate: Two players in

playing a game of checkers accept the static conditions or rules of the game (which, by the way, become dynamic as soon as they are acted upon). They move the pieces on the board alternately always in relation to the rules, to each other's changing positions, and all this in relation to the final objective.

The mechanism of behaving in such a situation is identical with thinking within a frame of reference in the field of physics or philosophy, for example, but the behavior in the game is of a different order.

This same mechanism characterizes practically all organized games and, since it habituates the participants to organized, productive behavior, it is basic to education regardless of the type of behavior involved. Of equal significance is the fact that all highly organized games are essentially problems, the solution of which tends to hold behavior to a cause-effect sequence. Thus, the problem situation compels the players to employ the mechanism of acting within a frame of reference, and by the nature of the bona fide problem solving tends to integrate behavior.

While it is probable that integration takes place to some degree in all intelligent behavior, the development of integrated behavior is largely left to chance by education. Some means of inducing integration is therefore a necessity in education. Group work has used, among other things, the organized game as one type of instrument facilitating this end, an instrument equally applicable in the school system.

Because group games are essentially social situations and because of the great body of traditional game patterns available, it is possible for education to control the situation by the choice of games, and thus determine to a considerable degree the behavior of the players. Even in the game in which the problem is too simple in itself to be challenging, the game still serves as a frame of reference and largely determines the behavior of the players. Since this point may not be clear to those inexperienced with play behavior, an illustration may be useful to elucidate the point: A play leader was

asked to demonstrate with a group of sixty so-called problem boys and girls ranging in age from eight to sixteen years, the force of the game situation in determining behavior. Although the children were excitedly running about the room and were unaccustomed to respond to either a signal or other authority in coming to order, it was not difficult for the play leader to gather a small group into a circle and begin a game, which the others gradually joined. The game situation called for silence—one person standing in the center with his eyes shut while another tried to tiptoe in and touch him before being heard. This group of outstandingly unruly children played the game, observing the rules regarding silence, for twenty-two minutes, consecutively.

Thus when the game is accepted and becomes for the players a frame of reference, behavior is always relative to it. This does not preclude individual differences in the effort to solve the problem. For example, nothing in the frame of reference in the game described prevented one boy from crawling out to the center on his hands and knees and another from removing his shoes.

This illustrates the point that the situation, of which the leader and all the players are obviously a part and not the personal influence of the leader, may be made the predominant force in determining behavior.

What has been claimed for the game may with equal justification be claimed for the drama, orchestral music, and many other group activities, and also for the homogeneous social group long known as the social club; but with differences significant to social education, discussed later. In fact, the processes in previously discussed groups might well be considered merely introductory to social education as compared with the possibilities of a more vital contribution resulting from long-continued intimate association in the integrated club.

The spontaneous formation of homogeneous groups has been observed by sociologists and recognized as a basic sociological fact.

This recognition, however, has remained for a long period largely an academic interest and, aside from the discoveries of group workers in their practice, the concept has not been sufficiently analyzed to make it applicable in any considerable degree to any aspect of education.

While the phenomenon of spontaneous group formation is in no sense confined to rural communities, it is particularly observable in them, because the characteristic long-time residence and primary social contacts are apparently conducive to the spontaneous formation of this type of group, the chief concern of which seems to be the mutual satisfaction of its members in social association.

Experience in the leadership of homogeneous groups of this type has revealed to the group worker features common to all such groups wherever they exist and regardless of such extreme differences in life pattern as that of delinquency and social conformity. These common features seem to be somewhat as follows: mutuality and coöperation (for were these not present the group could not hold together); shared responsibility for whatever concerns the group unit as such, and its individual members as such, correlated with responsibility on the part of the individual to the group; cognizance of specific aspects of cultural patterns as social referents for behavior arising in the group. For example, the cultural pattern of property rights inevitably becomes a referent for the group whose life pattern is that of thieving, as well as for those with the life pattern of honesty. The fact that the former is in conflict and the latter in conformity with such a referent does not alter its being a referent for both.

As the club type of group continues to solve the problems arising out of the intimate association of its members, it builds up standards, whether defined in words or existing as un verbalized consensus, and gradually becomes an organized unit. The organization within such a group constitutes a frame of reference similar to that in which the game was used as illustration, but, as has been said, with significant differences.

Whereas the game pattern, for example, is already determined and constitutes a frame of reference for the players, that of the club must be created by members coöperatively and continuously. Thus the club is at once not only compelled to create its own social frame of reference but to act in relation to it. In other words, it is in the highest sense self-controlled.

If group integration is to be utilized in education, its development must not be left to chance nor confined exclusively to groups spontaneously formed. It must, rather, be treated as any other subject matter of planned education and be included in the educational system. As social education advances, the development of group integration becomes a necessity and, as we have seen, group play of various types—music, drama, games, sports, and other group activities of similar character requiring collective action—constitute situations conducive to its origin and development. However, the relative degree of permanency, or the life span of the club, together with its dependence for existence upon the voluntary coöperative efforts of its members, gives to the club a different character from that of the short-term play activities. A difference of further significance between the club and these activities is that the very nature of the social relations and problems arising in the club leads the members to seek cultural referents, such as social customs, institutions, mores, and the like, to which their specific problems point. Further, when clubs develop in what may be termed a home center or central meeting place, such as a settlement house, and numbers of clubs federate and carry out coöperative projects, the social sphere of each is enlarged and their social development affected accordingly. This enlarging of the social sphere inevitably leads out, as has been said, to cultural referents. By this process, then, social behavior is created in the integrated group, and both those behavior patterns which characterize intimate social relations and the cultural referents to which they lead may be wrought out and tested, over a period of time long enough to create convictions and lead to dynamic ac-

tion; and they may, moreover, constitute something of safeguards against indifference and social irresponsibility.

When group integration is utilized as a basic factor in social education, matters of immediate concern to the group may be so related to cultural patterns that they become forces affecting group behavior, and the attitude of the group unit toward such referents in turn logically becomes a force affecting specific behavior in the individual member. Experience has revealed that by such processes reforms may be wrought in groups and individuals, for this form of treatment has resulted in changes even in such relatively fixed behavior patterns as attitudes and habits in the individual and, by the same process, standards of behavior in groups have been brought progressively to higher levels.

Thus the integrated group may be made the center of a socializing process extending far beyond its immediate experiences and into the basis of social living as embodied in cultural patterns—customs, institutions, mores, and the like.

GROUP TREATMENT OF SOCIAL-WORK PROBLEMS

JOSEPHINE STRODE

Group treatment of social-work problems has become imperative in county welfare administration. Hundreds of social workers, overwhelmed by the multiplicity of administrative duties, as well as case-work responsibilities, need group-work skills to enable them to cope with their jobs effectively, and to aid thousands of frustrated relief clients to regain satisfactions through self-help.

Last summer I made an analysis of the job of county social-service director. A check list of 528 duties was sent to the directors of two counties in each State. The 50 workers who returned the schedules checked duties covering a wide range of responsibilities. With the exception of three States, it is evident that the county unit of welfare administration persists and that county directors administer the majority of the services of the new social-security program as well as most of the traditional welfare services of the county, such as poor farm, institutional care of the dependent and delinquent, probation, parole, and county burials.

The analysis of the returns from the schedule shows that the 50 participating county social-service directors do case work—including intake, checking applications, home visits, collateral calls, budgeting, determining eligibility, writing case histories, correspondence, and treatment for the twelve services; old-age assistance, aid to dependent children, aid to the blind, child-welfare services, services for crippled children, maternal and child health services, county direct relief, Works Progress Administration, Civilian Conservation Corps, National Youth Administration, transients, and service cases.

Forty-eight made community contacts with five or more groups and individuals in each of the following divisions: governmental, educational, medical, religious, business, and fraternal organizations, as well as client and labor organizations.

Forty-five checked official conferences with State and Federal officials and supervisors, such as State health, WPA, NYA, CCC, rural resettle-

ment, surplus commodity, State employment, publicity personnel, and Government auditors.

Forty-nine indicated administrative responsibilities including securing office space, office equipment, organization of office procedures, personnel management, and publicity.

Forty-six checked programs of in-service training through district and State institutes, staff conferences, meetings of professional groups, and case committees.

Forty-nine were responsible for Federal, State, and county statistical and narrative reports for the different services.

Each county social-service director was asked to check the duties which she did herself, or for which she was directly responsible. No attempt was made to measure how well any of the duties were performed.

An average of 197.3 duties was checked by the 50 county social-service directors, the good performance of which would require skills not only in case work, but in office organization, personnel management, group leadership, community organization, home economics, conference planning, teaching, supervision of work projects, as well as skill in composing letters, reports, case histories, publicity, compiling statistics, and clerical skills such as typewriting, filing, and bookkeeping.

Not many social workers possess an adequate measure of these skills, and few of the schools of social work offer training in them. However, for the most effective utilization of any of these individual skills, the county social-service director needs group skills, based on an understanding of the value of group participation and group interaction, and the reality of group achievement. Furthermore, the director needs to know the history, purpose, and achievements of the various groups existing in the community.

Take the matter of office organization, for example. I recall a situation which is typical of many social-work offices. A county director, a graduate of one of our urban schools of social work and an excellent case worker, was so swamped with the volume of admin-

istrative detail that she was unable to do any case work worthy of the name. Upon looking into the matter it was found that she had personally assumed the burden of responsibility for all the office work. She had three office assistants, local high-school graduates, to whom she allowed little responsibility, and they responded with little interest and less work.

This social worker lacked group techniques for securing the co-operation and capacity participation of her office staff. She was induced to place before them the problems of the office administration on the basis of group responsibility, with a place for each worker to make his contribution to policy making, office procedures, and to share in the total accomplishment. As a consequence the young workers became interested and were given increasing responsibilities. In a short time the actual office detail requiring the attention of the social worker was less than a third of what it had been.

Even in such a matter as writing, one county director who was burdened with many complaint letters, out-of-town inquiries, and semi-official correspondence was able to develop an untrained staff to the point where they handled the correspondence capably and sympathetically. This was done quite simply through creative group discussions of problems involved in the letters and the techniques of letter writing. Within an incredibly short time, the workers, as a group, had taken over the full responsibility of the work of this department, deciding within their own group how to apportion the work, and how to file and follow through on the correspondence.

In community contacts, meetings with county commissioners, with State and Federal officials, and other local and State groups, the need for an understanding of group procedures would seem obvious. The fact remains, however, that social workers are seldom equipped to meet the problems which arise in these group contacts. Many social workers have lost their jobs, and many programs of social welfare have failed because social-service directors have not understood the philosophy underlying group interaction, nor pos-

sessed the most elementary group skills, nor appreciated the traditional place in the social-service picture of indigenous groups.

I recall a request by a group of county commissioners for the removal of a young man who was acting as county director of their welfare program. This young man was a graduate of a large mid-western school of social work, with the required 300 hours of case-work experience with an urban agency. He was a fine young man, earnest and conscientious. After much sifting for reasons for his discharge, it appeared that the young man had simply individualized his responsibility too much. He failed to secure group participation in the various phases of the social-welfare program. He analyzed his own failure by saying, "Yes, I know, I failed to carry my community and the county commissioners with me,"—thus revealing, further, his ignorance of the place and value of group interaction. It was decidedly not a matter of carrying the community, or any person or group of persons, along with him in his way, however fine a way it may have been, but rather a matter of integrating his ideas with those of the community, thus securing a community welfare program which was a true group expression.

In the matter of education for untrained staffs, there is particular need for utilization of group techniques. The wide differences in educational and cultural background of the majority of workers in county welfare set-ups make it difficult, if not impossible, for a teacher to instruct formally by the class-lecture method. Through local associations of these workers, however, and small study groups, where the members themselves choose their textbooks and discuss social-work theories in the light of their own experiences, excellent progress has been made in the matter of education.

One association of county workers evolved a program of study by committees. The members joined whatever committee they desired, because of their interest in the subject matter selected for study. One committee studied rural social-work problems, another coöperatives, another case work, and still another community organization. At

their regular bimonthly meetings the various committees reported on their study. These reports were always in the nature of a group report, such as panel discussion by members of the committees, or their own dramatizations of their material, or papers prepared by all the members of the group working together and written up at group meetings. As a result meetings were alive and well attended.

There can be no doubt that the group approach and group treatment of the organization and administrative phases of social-work programs are essential if our social workers are to perform the multiplicity of tasks with which they are confronted today.

Even greater, however, than the need for group treatment of administration problems in social work is the need for group treatment of relief clients themselves. The most serious problems facing social workers today are linked with client emotional and personality breakdown. Worse than any physical privations are the privations of spirit. Loss of ambition, apathy, hopelessness, indifference, feelings of defeat and inadequacy are client problems challenging the thinking of social workers and the adequacy of their treatment.

Social workers realize that drunkenness, insolence, submissiveness, swaggering, illness, both pretended and real, and other similar defeating efforts at self-expression are but so many convulsive indications of client frustration in solving their own problems. To enable them to cope with these client manifestations, social workers everywhere are scrutinizing their professional equipment, surveying the techniques and philosophies of the social-work field as a whole, to determine, if possible, methods for solving these client problems on the large scale demanded by the numbers on relief.

Psychiatric social workers feel they are able to defer or prevent complete client personality breakdowns through a sort of intangible "relationship" therapy. Due to the expense, the scarcity of competent workers, and the time element involved, however, only a few clients, comparatively speaking, have been helped.

Public-welfare workers, on the other hand, struggling with im-

sessed the most elementary group skills, nor appreciated the traditional place in the social-service picture of indigenous groups.

I recall a request by a group of county commissioners for the removal of a young man who was acting as county director of their welfare program. This young man was a graduate of a large mid-western school of social work, with the required 300 hours of case-work experience with an urban agency. He was a fine young man, earnest and conscientious. After much sifting for reasons for his discharge, it appeared that the young man had simply individualized his responsibility too much. He failed to secure group participation in the various phases of the social-welfare program. He analyzed his own failure by saying, "Yes, I know, I failed to carry my community and the county commissioners with me,"—thus revealing, further, his ignorance of the place and value of group interaction. It was decidedly not a matter of carrying the community, or any person or group of persons, along with him in his way, however fine a way it may have been, but rather a matter of integrating his ideas with those of the community, thus securing a community welfare program which was a true group expression.

In the matter of education for untrained staffs, there is particular need for utilization of group techniques. The wide differences in educational and cultural background of the majority of workers in county welfare set-ups make it difficult, if not impossible, for a teacher to instruct formally by the class-lecture method. Through local associations of these workers, however, and small study groups, where the members themselves choose their textbooks and discuss social-work theories in the light of their own experiences, excellent progress has been made in the matter of education.

One association of county workers evolved a program of study by committees. The members joined whatever committee they desired, because of their interest in the subject matter selected for study. One committee studied rural social-work problems, another coöperatives, another case work, and still another community organization. At

their regular bimonthly meetings the various committees reported on their study. These reports were always in the nature of a group report, such as panel discussion by members of the committees, or their own dramatizations of their material, or papers prepared by all the members of the group working together and written up at group meetings. As a result meetings were alive and well attended.

There can be no doubt that the group approach and group treatment of the organization and administrative phases of social-work programs are essential if our social workers are to perform the multiplicity of tasks with which they are confronted today.

Even greater, however, than the need for group treatment of administration problems in social work is the need for group treatment of relief clients themselves. The most serious problems facing social workers today are linked with client emotional and personality breakdown. Worse than any physical privations are the privations of spirit. Loss of ambition, apathy, hopelessness, indifference, feelings of defeat and inadequacy are client problems challenging the thinking of social workers and the adequacy of their treatment.

Social workers realize that drunkenness, insolence, submissive-ness, swaggering, illness, both pretended and real, and other similar defeating efforts at self-expression are but so many convulsive indications of client frustration in solving their own problems. To enable them to cope with these client manifestations, social workers everywhere are scrutinizing their professional equipment, surveying the techniques and philosophies of the social-work field as a whole, to determine, if possible, methods for solving these client problems on the large scale demanded by the numbers on relief.

Psychiatric social workers feel they are able to defer or prevent complete client personality breakdowns through a sort of intangible "relationship" therapy. Due to the expense, the scarcity of competent workers, and the time element involved, however, only a few clients, comparatively speaking, have been helped.

Public-welfare workers, on the other hand, struggling with im-

mense case loads and restricted funds, have seen their work as largely palliative, hoping for some form of governmental action, as yet undefined, to remedy difficulties permanently.

Recently, many social workers, glimpsing a relationship between personality problems and the separation of the client from active group participation, have turned to group workers for some formulations for restoring a client's zest for living and achieving.

Summoned to give an analysis of their techniques and the philosophy underlying their activities, group workers have manifested some confusion. Many have turned to the field of psychiatry for their interpretations; they speak, and write, of the "case-work approach" in group work, of leaders serving as "parent substitutes," of group workers symbolizing the superego for group members. Some have become so imbued with case-work philosophy that they have case workers present at group meetings to analyze and "treat" individual behavior problems. Such group workers have become individual-focused, client-centered. Instead of seeing the value of group participation in group interaction, in group relationships, they affirm it to be in the leader's relationship to the members. Behavior within a group, they maintain, is controlled or directed by the leader through the roles which the leader plays in response to the emotional needs of the members, or the "uses" the club members make of the leader. They also describe other leadership methods of control, which sound very much like the manipulative techniques of case work at its worst. These group workers have failed to realize the impersonal controls of behavior inherent in the group activity itself.

Intimidated by a barrage of psychiatric formulations and made to feel her progeny would have no legitimacy outside a union with case work, group work has almost been betrayed into a shotgun marriage with case work. This attempted identification with case work is a serious threat to the distinctive contribution which group work has to make to the field of social techniques.

Group work is uniquely concerned with the *situation* which determines the relationships of members of the group to each other and to the group worker. Case work, on the other hand, emphasizes the relationship between the client and the case worker as the dynamic of the treatment of personal difficulties; the case worker seeks to change or control a client's attitudes and behavior through a verbalized appeal to his emotions. The case worker's influence is entirely personal, while that of the group worker is impersonal. The aim of the group worker is to provide the *situation* for self-initiated activity.

The group situation affords endless possibilities for interaction. Associating with many persons within the pattern of an activity, the stimulation is varied, not premeditated or planned, but dynamic and direct.

No matter how defeated a relief client may feel, he seldom fails to respond to the cross stimulations in a group. He gets a holiday from himself and his troubles, a rest from his personal tensions; he finds himself resourceful, audacious, successful, perhaps laughing and witty, and even a "very devil of a fellow." He may achieve success within his group, or he may relax into the crowd, losing his tensions by leaning on the crowd. Mentally and emotionally refreshed he is then better equipped to face the hazards of his own precarious living.

Thousands of frustrated relief clients need experience in coöperative group action. Members of a group, well integrated through satisfying social experiences, acquire confidence in their ability to achieve coöperatively, and can do much for themselves and the whole relief-client situation.

Social workers have been slow to realize the problem-solving values in group treatment, but today the immensity of their job and its far-reaching social implications are compelling them to experiment with group techniques. As a result social workers are discovering what sociologists long have known, that successful treatment of social problems must be group treatment!

THE STATE AND EDUCATION

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The State's responsibility for education in the present day is an accepted fact. The one thing questioned is the extent, or quantity, of its responsibility. No attempt is made in this paper to discuss the responsibility of the Federal Government in education. The field is limited to a discussion of the State's responsibility, and material is taken primarily from the conditions as found in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, with the assumption that this represents typical conditions throughout the United States. The article is also written with special reference to the conditions revealed by an educational survey known familiarly as "The Pennsylvania Study."

The responsibility of the State for universal education has been growing and expanding since the day when the pauper-school idea, a direct inheritance from England, was broken up. Today, in every State in the Union we find public schools maintained from the first grade through senior high school, and, in many States, provision is made in some localities for the first two years of college work. In addition, many States are assuming responsibility for the expanding program of adult education.

In Pennsylvania the pauper-school idea was fully developed. The State Constitution of 1790 had made provision for a State system of pauper schools, but there was nothing done about pauper schools, or about existing schools, until 1802, when the public-school law was enacted, directing the overseers of the poor to notify parents, whom they thought sufficiently intelligent, that they should declare themselves paupers, and the State would provide free schooling for their children. It was not until 1834, after seven years of propaganda by the Pennsylvania Society for the Promotion of Public Schools, that the final elimination of the pauper schools as such was begun. This law designated every voting district a school district, and required that each district vote that year on its acceptance or rejection

of the law. Those accepting were to be organized under the new law; those rejecting were to remain under the provisions of the old pauper-school act. While over half the school districts voted for the new law at that time, it was not until 1873 that the last district in the State accepted the new system, and the pauper schools were finally eliminated from Pennsylvania.

With the State's interest in education came the battle to establish supervision, and the task of placing responsibility for teacher training. Teacher preparation in the early days was very meager. The ability to read, write, spell, and to handle ordinary problems in arithmetic was considered sufficient preparation for any teacher. The field of teacher preparation appealed to some people as a profitable type of private enterprise, and many normal schools were started, not as State institutions, but as private businesses for the making of money profits. But as the State's responsibility for education grew, normal schools were gradually acquired by the State, which, in this way, took over the supervision and responsibility for the training of elementary-school teachers.

The preparation of teachers for the high schools was left to the institutions of higher education, and it was with the advent of interest in professional training that the colleges of Pennsylvania were requested by the State Department of Public Instruction to train specifically some of their graduates for teaching in the public high schools. While some of the colleges never wholeheartedly accepted their responsibility in this field, most of them, and at considerable expense, worked with the State in developing an excellent program of professional preparation for teachers. In recent years, the responsibility for training secondary-school teachers in Pennsylvania has been partially assumed by the thirteen State-supported teacher-preparation institutions, which have become State teachers colleges, fully accredited by the State to grant the bachelor's degree. Thus has arisen a conflict between the State-endowed schools and the privately endowed schools whose functions overlap.

In addition to teacher preparation, the State has assumed certain

responsibilities in training students for the field of medicine. This immediately presents the problem of the extent of the State's liability in education. Having assumed responsibility in two professional fields, should not the Commonwealth take over other fields also, such as engineering, law, and liberal arts? Can the State justify the support of teacher training and medicine when many argue that the engineer, for instance, is equally important to society as a whole? Should public support end at high school, or should it continue through the first two years of college? Or, as we find in some western States, should it furnish a complete system of education from kindergarten through college and graduate school? Should all private initiative in education be transferred to the State? Some States have attempted this: both Oregon and Michigan tried to completely monopolize education, and, in a test case before the Supreme Court, Justice McReynolds read the decision that such monopoly was unconstitutional because it violated property rights without due process of law in the forcible invalidating of private schools. The answers to these questions are necessarily very complex. Some of them very likely cannot be answered, because they are apt to become questions of vested interests and emotions, rather than questions of reason, to be treated rationally.

It is probable that the Carnegie Corporation of New York had these difficulties in mind when, in 1927, it inaugurated through its President, Frederick B. Keppel, and at the request of a joint commission of the Association of College Presidents and the State Department of Public Instruction, the well-known "Pennsylvania Study." The report of this study has been published by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in a bulletin entitled *The Student and His Knowledge*, and in a reprint under the same title giving summaries and general results, with conclusions. The limits of the present subject, of course, will confine this article to only a few of the major findings of the Pennsylvania Study; namely, those dealing with State participation in education.

The aims of the Pennsylvania Study and its point of view are clearly set forth in the following statement, quoted from the report:

Why are these young people in high school and college? What is the responsibility of the high school for orienting its pupils with respect to college aims and purposes? How shall the college develop these young people so that their native talents and previous achievement will be completely utilized in attaining the aims of the individual and of the college? . . . Had the purpose of the inquiry been less far-reaching than it was, the mere test results on a project closed in 1932 could have been issued at an earlier date. Aside from certain delays over which the authors had no control, two considerations tended to prolong the preparation of a formal report. The first of these was the wish to analyze exhaustively a unique mass of material that was extraordinarily rich—the comprehensive test scores of nearly 45,000 different individuals in the portion of the study reported. . . . The second consideration is more important still. It was desired to offer an interpretation of the results and a statement of their implications that should commend itself as reasonable and as suited to American conditions. With this in view, the essential features of the data were early made available both in Pennsylvania and elsewhere in the form of progress reports, addresses, and innumerable special conferences with institutions, or institutional officers, where the implications and problems raised were fully discussed. It is largely on this composite digest and projection of the outcomes into practice that the interpretive aspects of the present report are based. The data themselves are ephemeral; any of the institutions participating might present a different picture on a further analysis. But the problems, the principles involved, and the interpretations to be drawn would be, in all essential respects, identical with those which confronted the study in 1928–1932. Although figures change from year to year, correct solutions for such problems are as applicable today as ever. Indeed, they can probably be urged with increasing effect as the original situation recedes. To make available any progress developed by the study in the direction of those solutions is the chief aim in this formal summary of outcomes already widely known.

The study was primarily concerned in determining the educational growth of large numbers of boys and girls in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania over a period of ten years. The first thing

was to define "educational outcome" and in the report considerable space is devoted to the discussion of the premise that "knowledge" is the dominating feature in an educational outcome. The procedure then was to test this large number of students by very complete objective-type tests. Many examinations of this sort were constructed for the project: one given to high-school seniors in 1928, and others given to college sophomores in 1930, and again in 1932, when seniors. In addition to public and private secondary schools, 45 colleges and 13 State teachers colleges coöperated in the study. The tests represent perhaps the most carefully planned program of testing administered so far in educational circles. The college tests showed an unusually high degree of statistical reliability—high enough in all cases to make group averages trustworthy. The same can be said in regard to individual scores on the more important tests. In addition to the college tests, a large number of tests were constructed and administered to a wide group of public-school pupils over a period of ten years. While the results of this study deal specifically with the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, it is fair to assume that they must be considered representative of the nation as a whole.

One of the most enlightening conclusions demonstrated by the study was that the present system of classification of students in our colleges and universities as freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors has very little meaning except as an administrative device. This conclusion is made from a study of the results of a battery of tests given to 5,747 college sophomores, 3,720 college seniors, and 1,503 high-school seniors. The median score of all high-school seniors was lowest (179), that of all college sophomores next (254), and that of all college seniors highest (314). This does not, however, give a true picture. When the students within individual institutions were segregated according to the courses they were taking, the median scores did not show such a ranking. For instance, in those teachers colleges having a two-year course, the median score of students was 155, or 24 points lower than that of the high-school

seniors. Likewise, sophomores in the four-year course in education in the teachers colleges scored only 211, which is 43 points below the median of college sophomores as a whole. Sophomores matriculated in education departments in regular colleges awarding the A.B. and B.S. degrees received higher scores than those in teachers colleges, their median being 235. This, however, was 19 points below the median of sophomores as a whole. Sophomores taking the course in business administration were likewise below average, their score being 217. Students for the B.S. degree made a median score of 259, and those in the A.B. course, with a score of 275, were considerably above the average. High in the group were the engineering students with a median score of 280.

Comparison between the sophomore classes of different colleges showed equally startling results. In one small college with only 32 sophomores in the A.B. course, the median score was well above that of college seniors in the State as a whole, and the students in this college enrolled in the B.S. course and in education courses were almost equally as high. Size has very little relation to the quality of accomplishment as measured by these tests. One of the largest of the 34 colleges is 23d from the top; the two lowest ranking colleges are very small.

One consistent feature is the uniformly low ranking of the students in education. Next to the bottom are those pursuing courses in business administration. In the middle group are found the B.S. students, with the A.B. and the engineering students consistently at the top.

Still greater differences are found when the records of individual students are studied. Chart B in the report is especially worthy of study because it makes an analysis of a typical college graduating class of 185 students. All these students had spent the required amount of time in college, having completed the set schedule, and were about to get the same degree. The range of scores for these seniors was from a low of 300 to a high of 1,200 points. Most of them

were actually outranked by certain juniors, sophomores, and freshmen in the same college, and many did not know as much as well-informed fourth-year high-school students.

Chart B also shows an attempt to reorganize college graduation on the basis of achievement as measured by the testing program, using a score of 650 points in the educational achievement test as the basic criteria toward graduation, instead of the conventional 120 course credits. On the new achievement basis, nearly three fourths of the class could not have been graduated. If the graduating class, however, were made up of every one in the college who achieved a score of 650 points or more, it would include a total of 211 members—52 seniors, 60 juniors, 49 sophomores, and 50 freshmen. According to this 72 per cent of the seniors then graduating were less entitled to receive their degrees than 15 per cent of the freshmen.

Chart C of the report is also significant because it shows the interesting mental profiles of two engineering students who enrolled in the same class and who were given approximately the same grades by the college, one a C+ and the other a C—. While sophomores, the C+ student achieved a score of 808 on the test, whereas the C— student made a score of only 387. At the end of two years the C+ student achieved a score of 1,035, or a gain of 227 points, while the C— student made a score of 474, or a gain of only 87 points. The gains in individual subject matter were even more significant than the total scores. The C+ student was far ahead of his classmate in knowledge of vocabulary and fine arts, English literature, foreign literature, general science, and history and social studies. Only in the field of mathematics were they approximately the same. The questions which naturally arise are these: Which of the two students analyzed will make the better engineer? Which branch of the subject might each best take? May one, or both, be misguided in selecting engineering as a life work? These are problems which the traditional college program does not consider.

The low rank of prospective teachers has previously been men-

tioned. An identical test was given to 1,200 seniors in four large Pennsylvania high schools, and to the same number of college seniors who were preparing to teach. Ninety-eight per cent of the high-school seniors and the teacher candidates fell within the same range of scores. It is interesting to note that 25 per cent of the teacher candidates knew less than the top fourth of the high-school seniors. One out of every eight high-school seniors knew more than the average teacher candidate. In a comparison of the best general-science scores the teacher candidates knew less than the high-school seniors in that particular field. In vocabulary tests, 30 per cent of the teacher candidates knew less than half the words given, while 25 per cent of the high-school students knew more than half. The interesting thing is that a very large number of students preparing to teach knew less than many of the brightest high-school pupils.

Another result of the tests given high-school seniors is best demonstrated by a quotation from the report:

In May 1928, the study tested the secondary-school seniors of Pennsylvania, using a series of examinations of which each pupil took an average of six—an intelligence test, a test in English, in mathematics, in history, in science, and in language. A total of 26,548 pupils from both high schools and private schools participated. So far as can be learned these pupils constituted about 70 per cent of the enrolled seniors of that year. The pupils tested were followed during the next two years to discover their occupational distribution, and reports were secured on 97 per cent of them. . . . The distributions on Chart D make clear two important facts. First, the group that goes to work after leaving high school includes many pupils fully as able to secure high test scores as any pupils who go directly on to college.

Nearly half of these high-school seniors (12,092) did not go on to college, and it is safe to assume that most of them did not go on because of economic reasons. About two thirds of this large group that were unable to attend college made just as good records in the tests as those who were able to go on. About 3,800 continued their schooling on a part-time basis and of these more than three fourths

made as good records as the college group. There were 9,746 who went to college and about one fourth of this group made lower records than those who left school after graduation from high school.

The significant thing is that colleges have not been logically selective. Taken as a group, the high-school pupils who go to college are of superior ability. But there are many brilliant young minds that are left behind because they cannot pay college bills. The report says:

... it does not make the situation less distressing for such students to know that at the other end of the scale the college is accepting a large group who, even though they may pay full tuition, are still a drain on that surplus expenditure that a college incurs over and above what any student returns to it. In other words, both State subsidies and the income from endowments are today flowing in large amounts to individuals who might be replaced by more appropriate intellectual investments.

Few now question the State's responsibility to provide educational opportunities for the large number of boys and girls between the ages of 16 and 18, or even older, who are unable because of financial circumstances to attend school, and who cannot because of economic conditions find employment. Pennsylvania has, during the past two years, passed some excellent legislation which makes it mandatory for boys and girls under 18 years of age who have not completed the regular high-school program to stay in school. However, the Pennsylvania Study reveals the still greater State responsibility for the large number of high-school graduates of superior ability who can neither find employment nor can go on to institutions of higher education because of economic conditions at home. No one can deny the right of these individuals to a higher education of the type which they will best profit by.

The question is, therefore, how can this responsibility be met? Will it be through junior-college programs inaugurated by the public-school districts, will it be through a revision of the functions

of our State teachers colleges, or, will it come, as it has in some communities, by a system of general scholarships available for use in any State-accredited institution, and granted to students of superior ability who are in definite need of such help? This latter system of scholarship aid seems ideal in a democratic country such as ours which is always careful to avoid any movement which might lead to a State monopoly of education with its inevitable tang of totalitarian politics. Such a program of State aid would mean subsidy to the individual and not subsidy to the institution, where control could be exercised by a government so minded. Subsidy to the individual is in direct line with the American tradition of the spirit of individualism and democracy. This, of course, would not lessen the State's responsibility to see that its institutions of higher education maintained high standards.

The Pennsylvania Study implies another responsibility for the State, and a serious one indeed; that is, the responsibility for greater supervision in the selection of candidates for teacher-preparation courses, and especially those that enter our State teachers colleges. When a large percentage of our graduates from these courses ranks lower than many of the boys and girls in our senior high schools, it is imperative that the State assume the obvious duty of adequately supervising the selection of candidates for entrance to our teacher-preparation institutions.

The study also implies the State's responsibility for encouraging improvement of standards of selection for students entering all colleges and universities, in order to avoid the economic waste that results from attempting to "educate" many who have not the mental capacity to profit by it. Further, the Study presents what may be taken as a challenge to the traditional academic organization in our institutions of higher education. In the light of these findings, is the present system of course credits justified? The conclusions drawn by the Study immediately suggest an emphatic negative, and the

majority of our college administrators would agree with this, but little progress has been made. Is it the responsibility of the State to lead the way?

There are many other responsibilities in education which the State should consider, and which are not implied in the Pennsylvania Study.

The changing socio-economic conditions brought about by technological advancement place still greater responsibilities upon the State. One of the chief problems raised in this connection is the necessity for adequate programs of adult education. Democracy can survive only as we provide opportunities for keeping our citizens aware of constantly changing social and economic conditions: an intelligent electorate is the only hope of democracy.

Likewise it is a growing responsibility of the State to care for handicapped children through medical service to all its children, through special classes for children with various disabilities. An added responsibility which the State must recognize and assume is in the field of mental hygiene, not only in the preparation of teachers, but also by making it mandatory in the training program of doctors and lawyers. The State should, further, provide all communities with psychiatric clinics for the many thousands of youngsters with mental and emotional difficulties, as a preventive measure for more serious difficulties which they may have later in life. This would mean the extension and development of the child-guidance center idea in the various communities of the State.

Another definite responsibility of the State should be to make available to all school districts equal educational opportunities through a variable system of State subsidies distributed according to the district's inability to provide these facilities. In order to do this on an economical basis, the State must assume the responsibility for the consolidation of a large number of small and inefficient school units. Equal educational opportunities can be obtained only in units

large enough to support the varied activities of a modern educational program.

Finally, the State has a definite responsibility for providing the right type of teacher security through tenure and retirement policies, in order to ensure a well-paid, efficient, and stable teaching force. This the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania has done in some excellent legislation passed during the last session of the Legislature.

While this enumeration of State responsibilities may seem too large for some, there are others to whom it will not seem adequate. One thing, however, is clear. As our present civilization grows more and more complex, the responsibility of the State will grow in like proportion. It is gratifying to note that many States are rapidly taking steps in the direction of more adequate supervision. But the thing which will constantly remain a problem is the extent to which the State should absorb educational functions, and the direction such extensive supervision should take.

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT AND EDUCATION

HOWARD A. DAWSON

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The expansion of the activities of the Federal Government is one of the outstanding facts of our national affairs during recent years. The development of great Federal departments of agriculture, commerce, labor, and interior are but outstanding examples of the expansion of the Federal solicitude for promoting the general welfare of the Nation. The establishment of Federal financing of agricultural extension and home demonstration service to every State and almost every county, the nationalization of labor affairs, the Federal assumption of the financial burden of relief, the establishment of the social-security program by the Federal Government in coöperation with the States, the vast Federal program for the conservation of natural resources without regard to State boundaries are all evidence of new Federal responsibilities that were formerly considered to be almost wholly State, or local, and sometimes individual, responsibilities. There is nothing strange or sinister about these new Federal programs. The economic and social development of the Nation has made them inevitable.

FEDERAL CONTRIBUTIONS TO EDUCATION

Although under the tenth amendment to the Constitution the control of public education has been generally interpreted as being specifically reserved to the States, the Federal Government has from the earliest days of the Republic made financial contributions, directly or indirectly, to the States for the establishment and maintenance of public educational institutions on all levels.

From the Revolution to the Civil War the Federal Government endowed higher and common schools with lands and grants of surplus tax moneys. Following the Civil War land grants were

made to new States and the policy of direct money grants for specific educational purposes was begun. Under these policies more than 246 million acres of land have been granted to the States for educational and other purposes, the major part going for education and amounting to more than the combined areas of Alabama, Indiana, New York, and Pennsylvania.

Money grants have been made through the Morrill-Nelson Act appropriating funds for land-grant colleges and universities; the Hatch Act, appropriating money for the establishment of agricultural experiment stations in connection with the land-grant colleges; the Smith-Lever Act and the Capper-Ketcham Act, providing for agricultural extension work through the land-grant colleges; and the Smith-Hughes Act and subsequent similar acts such as the recent George-Deen Act, for vocational education in agriculture, trades and industries, and home economics.

Under the emergency programs of the Federal Government since 1933 more than 120 million dollars has been spent for various educational purposes not counting building construction.¹ Of that amount, however, only 21.5 million dollars went to regular public schools.² In addition, from 1933 to June 30, 1937, more than 213 million dollars had been granted to States and localities for the construction of public-school and college buildings, exclusive of funds loaned for such purposes.³ All these appropriations and grants illustrate a fundamental interest of the Federal Government in fostering public education.

It will be observed that practically all the Federal grants of public funds have been for special types of education. General education as carried on in the regular public schools has been considered wholly as the responsibility of the State and local governments.

Past proposals for Federal aid to general education. Since the Civil

¹ Timon Covert, *Federal Aid for Education* (Leaflet No. 30, Washington D. C.: United States Office of Education, 1938), p. 15.

² Works Progress Administration, Division of Research, Statistics and Records.

³ Covert, *op. cit.*, p. 20

War frequent proposals have been made for Federal aid to the States for general education in the form of money grants. The Hoar Bill of 1870 provided that proceeds from the sale of public lands should be distributed in proportion to illiteracy in each State. This bill was really proposed as a part of the Reconstruction policy of the Federal Government in the South following the Civil War. It was opposed by Southern Congressmen and Senators because it proposed the establishment of a Federal system of schools to be administered by the United States Commissioner of Education. It was never enacted into law.

Between 1884 and 1887 the three Blair Bills, also providing for the distribution of funds to the States on the basis of illiteracy, but not proposing any Federal control of schools, were passed by the Senate, but were never approved by the House.⁴

Following the World War there was a renewed interest in the subject of Federal assistance to the States for education. The universal draft had made available information concerning the nation's manpower that reflected appalling conditions resulting from the failure of our public schools to reach and effectively serve large numbers of our people. It was officially reported that nearly one fourth of the young men in the draft were so poorly schooled that they were unable to write a letter home or read intelligently a column in a newspaper.⁵ As a result further proposals were made for the Federal Government to take steps to equalize educational opportunities. The Smith-Towner Bill, 1919, the Sterling-Towner Bill, 1921, and the Sterling-Reed Bill, 1923, were introduced in successive sessions of the Congress. These bills proposed to establish a Department of Education with a secretary in the President's Cabinet and to grant 100 million dollars annually to the States on a matching basis for eradication of illiteracy, Americanization of the foreign born, the equalization of educational opportunities by the States,

⁴ National Education Association, *Research Bulletin*, XV, 4 (September 1937), p. 157.

⁵ *Journal of the National Education Association*, March 1921, p. 41. Also Report No. 1201, House of Representatives, 66th Congress, 3d Session, January 17, 1921.

physical education, and the preparation of teachers. In 1921 this bill was reported favorably by the Education Committee of both the House and the Senate.⁶ In 1925 the provisions for Federal aid were deleted from the bill. None of these bills was enacted.

By 1933 the full effects of the "Great Depression" were felt in the schools of all the States. In 1933-1934, the Federal Government through the Emergency Relief Administration found it necessary to use more than \$21,000,000 in 33 States to pay the salaries of teachers in school districts that were without funds to maintain a customary school term. About one eighth of the public-school children in the Nation were enrolled in these districts.⁷

This situation gave rise to a demand for Congressional appropriations to the States for public schools. The Commissioner of Education called together the representatives of 32 national organizations and the National Committee for Federal Emergency Aid to Education was formed.⁸ This committee financed largely by the National Education Association was successful in having reported from the House Committee on Education the Douglas Bill to provide \$75,000,000 to the States to meet the emergency in public schools.⁹ The bill died in the House Rules Committee.

The Harrison-Fletcher Bill. In 1936, through its Legislative Commission, the National Education Association proposed the Harrison-Fletcher Bill providing for an initial appropriation of 100 million dollars annually to be apportioned to the States to be used by them "for the improvement of their public schools." The appropriation was to be increased by 50 million dollars annually until a maxi-

⁶ *Journal of the National Education Association, op. cit.* Also Report No. 1201, *op. cit.* Also *Research Bulletin, op. cit.*, p. 158.

⁷ Howard A. Dawson, *Financial Situation in Rural Schools and Small Independent School Districts, 1934-1935* (Circular No. 138, Washington D. C.: United States Office of Education, March 1935).

⁸ Hearings before the Committee on Education, House of Representatives, 73d Congress, 2d Session on House Bills Providing for Federal Emergency Aid for Education. Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., pp. 2 and 3.

⁹ Report No. 1562, *Federal Emergency Aid to Education*, House of Representatives, 73d Congress, 2d Session, May 10, 1934.

sum of 300 million dollars each year was reached. The funds were to be apportioned to the States on the basis of the number of children 5 to 20 years old residing in each State. The conditions to be met by the States were (1) the maintenance of a school term not less than eight months in all schools, (2) not to reduce the expenditures of State and local funds combined for public schools below the expenditures in the school year ending 1936, and (3) provide by State law for "a just and equitable distribution of said funds among the several public schools of that State or territory."

In the spring of 1937 hearings on the Harrison-Fletcher Bill were held before the Senate Committee on Education and Labor and the House Committee on Education. The Senate Committee voted favorably on the bill. Pending a vote in the Senate the House Committee held the bill. Meanwhile the President in his budget message of April 20, 1937, urged that all new authorizations for appropriations that do not carry their source of revenue be defeated. While the President did not specifically mention the Harrison-Fletcher Bill, his message made it practically impossible to get further action on the Bill at that time.

In September 1936 the President had appointed a committee to study the experience under existing programs of Federal aid for vocational education. On April 19, 1937, when there seemed to be a strong probability that the pending Harrison-Fletcher Bill might be enacted, the President changed the title of his Committee on Vocational Education to The Advisory Committee on Education, added four additional members, and instructed his committee to investigate "the whole subject of Federal relationship to State and local conduct of education," and to report to him "in time for action early next winter." Thus ended the consideration of the original Harrison-Fletcher Bill.

The Report of the Advisory Committee on Education. On February 23, 1938, the President transmitted to the Congress without recommendation the Report of The Advisory Committee on Educa-

tion.¹⁰ The Advisory Committee had made a strong case for Federal assistance to the States for the support of public education. Its conclusion is summarized in the following statement:

The facts presented in this report indicate that no sound plan of local or State taxation can be devised and instituted that will support in every local community a school system which meets minimum acceptable standards. Unless the Federal Government participates in the financial support of the schools and related services, several millions of children in the United States will continue to be largely denied the educational opportunities that should be regarded as their birthright. . . . The educational services now provided for a considerable percentage of the children are below any level that should be tolerated in a civilized country.

The Advisory Committee recommended Federal appropriations to the States, beginning in 1939 at \$72,000,000 and increasing in five years to \$202,000,000 for certain specific types of educational services as follows:

1. General Federal aid: For the purpose of lessening inequalities of educational opportunity, \$40,000,000 in 1939-1940, increasing to \$140,000,000 in 1944-1945, apportioned to the States on the basis of financial need as measured by the number of children five to nineteen years old and financial ability to support schools.

2. Aid for improving the facilities for teacher training: \$2,000,000 for 1939-1940, increasing to \$6,000,000 in 1941-1942 and thereafter through 1945, apportioned to the States on the same basis as general aid.

3. Aid for the construction of school buildings, especially those in connection with desirable reorganization of local school districts: \$20,000,000 in 1939-1940, \$30,000,000 in 1940-1941, and thereafter through 1945, apportioned to the States on the same basis as general aid.

4. Aid for improvement in the facilities of State departments of education: \$1,000,000 in 1939-1940, \$1,500,000 in 1940-1941, and \$2,000,000 each year thereafter through 1945, apportioned on the basis of \$5,000 to each State and the remainder on the same basis as general aid.

5. Grants to the States for adult education: For the purpose of stimulating and enabling the States to make adequate provision for civic,

¹⁰ The Advisory Committee on Education, *Report of the Committee*, Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., 1938.

part-time, vocational, and general adult educational services, grants are authorized to the States on the basis of adult population twenty years of age and over in the amount of \$5,000,000 in 1939-1940, \$10,000,000 in 1940-1941, and \$15,000,000 each year thereafter through 1945.

6. Grants to the States for rural library service: For the purpose of stimulating and enabling the States to provide adequate library services for rural inhabitants of the States, grants are authorized to the States on the basis of rural population in the amount of \$2,000,000 in 1939-1940, \$4,000,000 in 1940-1941, and \$6,000,000 for each year thereafter through 1945.

7. Grants for coöperative research, planning, and demonstrations: For the purpose of making necessary surveys and plans in connection with the best utilization of grants to States and for other coöperative educational research, planning, and demonstration projects, grants are authorized in the amounts of \$1,250,000 in 1938-1939, \$2,000,000 in 1939-1940, and \$3,000,000 for each year thereafter through 1945. Of these amounts, 40 per cent will be available to the United States Office of Education and 60 per cent will be allotted to the States and bona fide research agencies.

8. Education of children of Federal wards, employees residing on Federal reservations and at foreign stations: The funds for this purpose are for purely Federal responsibilities and definite amounts are not fixed. The best estimations available indicate \$3,000,000 annually.

The Advisory Committee recommended that the Federal grants be made in accordance with certain principles which are quite significant in the consideration of any proposition for Federal participation in the support of education:

1. The major portion of all Federal aid for education should be granted as a general fund for the current support of elementary and secondary education. In order that States and local school jurisdictions may have the necessary flexibility in the development of programs suited to local conditions, the specification of particular phases of elementary and secondary education to be supported from such a fund should be avoided.

2. The major portion of Federal aid for education should at all times be granted on a basis that tends to lessen inequalities of opportunity among States and within States.

3. Federal grants for special educational purposes may properly be

used to bring about attention to educational matters of special national concern and thus to improve the educational programs conducted under State and local auspices, but such grants should be considered with very great care to see that improvement does in fact result. The States are the units for the organization of educational programs; the methods of making grants should therefore avoid so far as possible the overdevelopment of any one phase of a State program at the expense of other phases.

4. The Federal Government should record its purposes explicitly but broadly, leaving to the States wide discretion and flexibility in the administration of the Federal grants, although those grants should be conditioned upon distribution within States in conformity with the general purposes for which the grants are made.

5. The general principle of coöperation between the Federal Government and the States, without coercion by either party, should dominate legislation providing for Federal grant; but wherever the major purpose of the grants is to bring about progress toward equality of educational opportunity, matching of funds by the States or local communities should not be required. Help is most needed in those areas where matching would be unjust if not impossible.

6. In order that local initiative and responsibility may be maintained, all Federal action should reserve explicitly to State and local auspices the general administration of schools, control over the processes of education, and the determination of the best uses of the allotments of Federal funds within the types of expenditure for which Federal funds may be made available. The Federal Government should in no case attempt to control the curriculums of the schools or the methods of teaching to be employed in them. In those fields, however, it should carry on research and make the results widely available.

7. All Federal grants for educational purposes to States maintaining separate schools and institutions for Negroes should be conditioned upon an equitable distribution of the Federal funds between facilities for the two races.

8. Federal grants should be used to build up and strengthen existing educational agencies and institutions in so far as they are able to serve important needs, and not to establish competing agencies and institutions.

9. Any system of Federal grants as a whole should be consistent with sound fiscal policy and should facilitate progress in tax reform.

10. In view of the extent of existing Federal relationships to State and

local conduct of education and their probable increase through the years, Federal relations to education should be reviewed under specially constituted and appropriate auspices at intervals of not more than ten years.

The Harrison-Thomas-Fletcher Bill. Following the recommendations of the Advisory Committee on Education the Legislative Commission of the National Education Association in consultation with the representatives of 38 national organizations drafted a bill which was introduced in the Senate as a substitute for the original Harrison-Fletcher Bill and in the House as an original bill. No action was taken by the 75th Congress.¹¹

In connection with this bill five principal issues have arisen:

1. Should Federal funds be allocated to the States in lump-sum amounts to be used by them for such purposes as they may choose, or should funds be earmarked for specific types of educational programs? The Advisory Committee on Education concluded that at least for a period of five years the latter alternative should be adopted.

2. Should the Federal Government allocate funds to the States in inverse ratio to their respective abilities to finance public education, or upon some simple basis such as population of school age? The Advisory Committee on Education recommended the adoption of the first alternative and their recommendation is evidently accepted by the President who in his address of June 30, 1938, speaking on Federal aid for education, said:¹²

Our aid for many reasons, financial and otherwise, must be confined to lifting the level at the bottom rather than to giving assistance at the top. Today we cannot do both, and we must therefore confine ourselves to the greater need.

3. Shall the Federal statute require an equitable distribution of funds received through Federal appropriations among the schools for whites and Negroes in those States that maintain separate schools for separate races? An affirmative answer to this question was accepted by the Advisory Committee and for the most part has been accepted by all proponents of Federal aid.

¹¹ Sidney B. Hall, chairman, *Report of the Legislative Commission, 1937-1938*, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

¹² *Journal of the National Education Association*, September 1938, p. 164.

4. To what extent shall control over public education be lodged in the Federal Government? In general two distinct types of control are possible. The first is control over purely fiscal matters such as auditing, reporting, and authority to see that the money is spent for the purposes for which appropriated. The second would have to do with purely educational matters such as the selection of educational personnel, the selection of the curriculum, and methods of teaching. Almost without exception this second type of control is disapproved by everybody interested in the subject. The principal question is whether the specific legislation proposed amply safeguards against the possibility of controls of the second type being exercised by Federal officials.

5. Shall the Federal statute permit the States to use any funds received from the Federal Government to provide certain services such as textbooks and transportation to children attending nonpublic schools? This issue has arisen chiefly because some States actually provide textbooks or transportation for pupils attending nonpublic schools, as, for example, Louisiana, New Mexico, New York, and Maryland. The issue was precipitated by the Advisory Committee's report that recommended that nothing in the Federal statute should forbid the use of Federal funds for such services. The Advisory Committee did not, as has been erroneously charged, propose the appropriation of Federal funds for nonpublic schools. No advocate of Federal aid for education has made any such proposal. Nevertheless the ancient issue of the separation of church and State has been made the central theme by some of the opponents of the Harrison-Thomas-Fletcher Bill.

REASONS FOR FEDERAL AID FOR EDUCATION

There are certain facts in modern American life that lead to the inevitable necessity for the national assumption of a part of the financial burden of maintaining the public schools. These facts have to do with (1) the Federal interest in the citizens of the Nation; (2) the high degree of mobility of our population; (3) the appalling differences in educational opportunity both among and within the States; (4) the great differences among the States in the number of children in ratio to the adult population; (5) the insuperable differences in economic ability among the States to pay taxes resulting in

meager funds for schools in poor States in spite of effort far exceeding that of richer States; and (6) the superior tax-collecting and revenue-distributing ability of the Federal Government.

Federal interest in the citizens of the Nation. A citizen of one of the sovereign States is none the less a citizen of our Nation. Ours is a representative form of government founded upon the democratic principle that final power and authority rest upon the will of the people as expressed by ballot. The Federal lawmakers and the executive are chosen by votes of the people. In the last analysis all national as well as State institutions are subject to the will of the electorate. The Federal Government has a vital interest in the qualities and character of its citizens. Surely a nation that demands the universal draft in time of war cannot with impunity neglect the education of its youth in times of peace.

Certainly no one would question that the nation has a vital interest in the promotion of the general welfare. Certainly no one would deny that the general welfare is promoted by the reduction and elimination of crime; the improvement of health and the lengthening of life; the reduction of poverty, unemployment, and relief; and the improvement of the general economic and cultural welfare of all inhabitants of the nation.

But none of these objectives is attainable without the benefits of public education. There is convincing evidence to lead to that conclusion:²⁸

1. As a general rule the States having the lowest educational standards are the States with the highest rates of homicide and other crimes.

2. Low standards of education and high relief rates go hand in hand, statistics from the Federal Emergency Relief Administration showing that of the heads of rural families on relief about one fifth were entirely illiterate, about two fifths had never gone beyond the fourth grade, and nine tenths had never gone beyond the eighth grade.

3. States, cities, and communities with good educational systems enjoy

²⁸ Hearings before the Committee on Education, House of Representatives, 75th Congress, 1st Session, on H. R. 5962. 1937. Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., pp. 342-351.

better health, lower death rates, higher expectation of life than those with poor schools.

4. High standards of education and high economic efficiency and cultural standards go together. Those States which 25 years ago were spending the highest percentage of their wealth for education have enjoyed the highest gains in per capita wealth in subsequent years. Again, the States ranking high in educational standards also rank high in per capita newspaper circulation and book purchases.

A national government that sets out to raise the economic, moral, ethical, and cultural standards of its people while at the same time it neglects the public schools, the only agency that has ever educated the masses in any nation, and perhaps the only agency that ever will, is following a policy that can result only in defeat of its objectives and ideals unless some other agency is able and willing to make adequate schools universally available.

Mobility of population. The national character of our people is further attested to by the high degree of mobility of population. People are not likely to continue their residence in the communities or even the States in which they were born, reared, and sent to school. Approximately one out of each four persons in the United States is now living in a State other than that of his birth.¹⁴ In California 2½ million of that State's 4½ million population were born in other States. Of the 120,000 Negroes in Detroit less than 17,000 were born in Michigan. A recent conference of farm leaders in the Middle West concluded that the more prosperous agricultural States are importing illiteracy from the poverty areas of the Nation. Thus the people of all the States are affected by the educational facilities in each of the other States.

Inequalities of educational opportunity. The extent, character, and significance of the inequalities of educational opportunities in America have not yet become impressive to many people. To make the picture as vivid as possible, let us look at a series of contrasts.

¹⁴ Hearings before the Senate Committee on Education and Labor, United States Senate, 75th Congress, 1st Session, on S. 419, 1937, p. 63.

Our city schools have more modern curriculums and buildings than the typical rural schools. Trained and experienced teachers under expert supervision have libraries and instructional material, while the most poorly equipped teachers have none of these teaching helps.

Contrast the kind of schools that can be bought for \$138 per pupil annually with the schools that can be bought for only \$25 annually, the teachers paid \$2,400 per year as compared with those paid \$465 per year, and an investment in school property in the richest State of \$570 per pupil as compared with \$95 in the poorest.¹⁵ In eight States the average number of days attended by each pupil in rural schools each year is less than 6½ months. For the 2,750,000 children in the Nation for whom there are no public-school facilities, equality of opportunity is no more than an ethereal dream. In one State practically all children of high-school age are in high school while in another two thirds of the children never get to high school largely because there are no high schools to attend.¹⁶

Differences in number of school children. One of the chief factors in the differences in educational opportunity among the States is the great differences in the number of children to be reared and educated as compared to the number of adults to provide for them. The twelve States spending the largest amount of money per pupil annually for schools have only 473 children aged 5 to 20 years for each 1,000 adults aged 21 to 65 years as compared to 740 in the twelve States spending the smallest amount per pupil. Although the twelve upper States have a burden hardly two thirds as great as the twelve lower States, they have an average per capita taxpaying ability more than 2½ times as great.

The nonfarm population of the Northeast section of the United

¹⁵ Statistics of State School Systems (Bulletin No. 2, 1935, Washington, D. C.: United States Office of Education), pp. 66, 71, and 90.

¹⁶ Statistics of State School Systems, *op. cit.*, pp. 6 and 9; Hearings before the Senate Committee on Education and Labor, *op. cit.*, p. 285.

States has only twice as many children of school age as the farmers of the Southeast, but they have 21 times as much income. The farmers of the Southeast have nearly 14 per cent of the Nation's school children but they have only two per cent of the national income. The farmers for the entire Nation have 31 per cent of the Nation's school children but they receive only nine per cent of the national income.

The poorer the community or the State in this country, the less are the expenditures for public schools and the greater is the number of children. So long as the Nation permits that condition to exist it tends to increase both ignorance and poverty.

Differences in ability to pay for schools. As a nation, we have acted as if we believed that inequality in educational opportunities has resulted from differences in the desires of communities and States to educate their children. Yet differences in educational opportunities correspond almost exactly with differences in economic power. What the respective States do for education is not a matter to be moralized about. It is a matter of dollars and cents.

In California the average expenditure per person for retail sales is \$374; in Mississippi it is \$71.¹⁷ Surely no one believes that the people of Mississippi spend only \$71 each because they do not wish to spend more. Small wonder then that California spends four and one-half times as much per pupil for schools as Mississippi.

The amount of taxes per capita which can be raised ranges from \$18.39 in Mississippi to \$109.33 in Nevada.¹⁸ Assuming that each State would spend an average of \$60 per year per weighted pupil for schools, it was found that 96.5 per cent of all tax resources in Mississippi would be required to maintain schools, while in Nevada only 16.5 per cent of tax resources would be required.¹⁹

¹⁷ Bureau of the Census, Department of Commerce, Washington, D. C., 1933.

¹⁸ Hearings before the Committee on Education, *op. cit.*, p. 41.

¹⁹ Lyle W. Ashby, *The Efforts of the States to Support Education*, Research Bulletin, XIV, 3 (May 1936), National Education Association, Washington, D. C., p. 150.

Effort to support schools. Another recent study shows that the richer the State, the less is the effort required to support schools, and the less is the effort actually made. On the whole, the poorer States spend larger proportions of their tax resources for education than the wealthier States. Although 17 of the poorer States make more than average effort to support schools 13 of them fall below the national average of school expenditures. Only 7 of the wealthier States make more than average effort to support schools, but 20 of them exceed the Nation's average in expenditures.

It is often said that if the States would "put their fiscal houses in order" all of them could have acceptable standards of school support. But it remains a fact that the States which, according to the standards of the best fiscal experts, have done the best jobs of modernizing their State tax systems are among the poorest States. Yet these very States have the least amount to spend for education. If some of the rich States would levy the same taxes at the same rates that some of the poorer States now levy, they would raise twice as much public revenue as they now raise.

Superior ability of Federal Government to levy and collect taxes. A major part of industry and national resources in many of the States is owned by persons living in other States. This situation drains income from the States where the property is located to the States where it is owned. It has been estimated that in some States as high as 70 per cent of all the income produced goes to pay interest, debts, rents, dividends, and profits to people living in other States. One noted economist recently said that the State of Texas is incomparably the richest foreign colony owned by Manhattan.²⁰

The modern corporation with its holding companies and interlocking directorates, its devices for avoiding taxation, and its undue influence in State legislatures makes adequate taxation increasingly difficult for the States.

²⁰ Hearings before the Senate Committee on Education and Labor, *op. cit.*, Testimony of Dr. Robert H. Montgomery, pp. 227-233.

Unequal State rates create unfair conditions of competition; rates should be reasonably uniform. These conditions make it desirable that the Federal Government become the chief tax-collecting agency for the States. Whether these statements are agreed to or not, the Federal Government is rapidly taking over many major sources of taxation. Unless, therefore, it allocates funds back to the States for schools, the schools will never benefit from these funds, and the educational problems of the States and communities will become more aggravated as time goes on.

SUMMARY

The economic and social development of the Nation has made inevitable the expansion of activities of the Federal Government in many fields, and much for the same reason more extended participation of the Federal Government in the support of public education is inevitable.

Although the control and support of public education are looked upon in the United States as functions of the States rather than of the Federal Government, the latter has been making contributions to the financial support of education since the earliest days of the Republic. The contributions are represented by the land grants, appropriations for colleges of agriculture and mechanical arts, agricultural extension work, vocational education, and more recently through emergency grants for school buildings and teachers salaries.

In the past many proposals have been made to have the Federal Government appropriate funds to the States for assistance in the support of general public education. Chief among those proposals are the Hoar Bill, 1870, the Blair Bill, 1884-1887, the Smith-Towner Bill, 1919, and several similar bills through 1925. In 1933 the whole problem was again raised through the disastrous effects of the depression on the schools, resulting in the proposal of the Harrison-Fletcher Bill in 1936.

The renewed interest in Federal aid resulted in the appointment of the Advisory Committee on Education by the President of the United States, April 19, 1937. The President's committee in its report strongly recommended a policy of Federal assistance for public education for a period of six years, the whole question to be restudied in the meantime. The Advisory Committee recommended specially earmarked grants for (1) the equalization of educational opportunities in public elementary and secondary schools both within and among the States; (2) the preparation of teachers; (3) the construction of public-school buildings, especially those needed in the reorganization of rural schools; (4) State departments of education; (5) adult education; (6) rural library service; (7) educational research and demonstrations; and (8) for school facilities on Federal reservations.

The Harrison-Thomas-Fletcher Bill was drawn according to the recommendations of the Report of the Advisory Committee on Education. The principal issues arising around this bill have to do with (1) the earmarking of grants for specific types of educational service; (2) the basis of apportioning funds to the States; (3) requiring equitable distribution of funds between the white and the Negro schools; (4) kind and amount of Federal control; (5) permitting the expenditure of public funds for services such as textbooks and transportation for children attending nonpublic schools.

The chief economic and social factors making necessary Federal participation in the support of education are: (1) Federal interest in the citizens of the Nation; the citizens of the States are none the less citizens of the Nation; public education has great contributions to make in the reduction of crime, the improvement of economic efficiency, and cultural standards; (2) the high degree of mobility of our population; (3) the appalling differences in educational opportunity both among and within the States; (4) the great differences among the States in the number of children in ratio to the adult population; (5) the insuperable differences in economic abil-

ity among States to pay taxes resulting in meager funds for schools in poor States in spite of effort far exceeding that of richer States; and (6) the superior tax-collecting and revenue-distributing ability of the Federal Government.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of THE JOURNAL may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send at once to the editor of this department titles—and where possible descriptions—of current research projects now in process in educational sociology and also those projects in kindred fields of interest to educational sociology.

RURAL SOCIOLOGISTS ORGANIZE

At the recent meeting of the American Sociological Society at Atlantic City, the rural sociologists organized the Rural Sociological Society of America, with a provisional constitution. This is an autonomous organization, but if proposed amendments to the constitution of the American Sociological Society are passed, it will form a section of that organization. The officers elected are: President, Dwight Sanderson, Cornell University; vice-president, John H. Kolb, University of Wisconsin; secretary-treasurer, T. Lynn Smith, Louisiana State University; and other members of the Executive Committee are Carl C. Taylor, United States Bureau of Agricultural Economics, and C. E. Lively, Ohio State University. The new society will continue the publication of *Rural Sociology*, now in its third year, with the support of Louisiana State University.

OHIO STUDY OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

The Bureau of Child Welfare Service of the Department of Public Welfare of the State of Ohio is undertaking a study of juvenile delinquency under the direction of Dr. A. R. Schwartz. The project which began in September 1937 will cover the rural areas in the State. Its purpose will be twofold: (1) to determine the particular juvenile delinquency factors prevailing in the particular county, and (2) to determine possibilities for prevention.

ANNUAL INSTITUTE OF THE SOCIETY FOR SOCIAL RESEARCH

The seventeenth annual institute of the Society for Social Research was held at the University of Chicago Friday and Saturday, August 19-20, 1938. The following program was presented:

Friday morning, August 19, 10.00 a.m.

- General Section: *Chairman*, Ernest W. Burgess, University of Chicago
Harold D. Lasswell, University of Chicago, "Tactical and Strategical Skills in Propaganda"
Douglas Waples, University of Chicago, "Bibliography and Social Research"

Friday afternoon, August 19, 2.00 p.m.

- Community Studies: *Chairman*, W. Lloyd Warner, University of Chicago
St. Clair Drake, University of Chicago, "Associations in the Negro Community of the Metropolitan Region"
Estelle Hill Scott, University of Chicago, "Some Ecological Aspects of the Negro Community"
Horace Cayton, University of Chicago, "A Discussion of the Methods and Objectives of the Study of the Negro Community in Chicago"

Friday evening, August 19

- Demography: *Chairman*, William F. Ogburn, University of Chicago
T. C. McCormick, University of Wisconsin, "The Relation between Marriage and Birth Rates in Wisconsin during the Depression"
Samuel A. Stouffer, University of Chicago, "Studies in Distance as a Sociological Variable"
A. A. Jaffe, University of Chicago, "Social Characteristics of the Jews in Chicago"

Saturday morning, August 20

- Social Psychology: *Chairman*, Richard T. Lapiere, Stanford University
T. D. Eliot, Northwestern University, "The Social Psychology of Bereavement"
Harvey Locke, University of Indiana, "Natural History of the Changing Attitudes Towards Venereal Disease"

Saturday afternoon, August 20

- Culture Contact: *Chairman*, Harley F. MacNair, University of Chicago
Kalervo Oberg, University of Missouri, "Theoretical Problems Involved in the Study of Culture Contact"

Edward Spicer, University of Chicago, "Assimilation and Accommodation of Southern Arizona Yaquis"

Robert Ekvall, "An Instance of Sino-Tibetan Culture Contact"

Personality Study:

Ruth Schonle Cavan, Rockford Women's College, "The Sociological Analysis of Personal Documents"

Discussants: Hugh D. Duncan, University of Chicago

Harriet Mowrer, Jewish Social Service Bureau

Edward B. Reuter, University of Iowa

Saturday evening, August 20

Annual Banquet of the Society for Social Research

Speaker: Leon E. Truesdell, United States Bureau of Census, Washington

The following are the new officers of the Society for Social Research for 1938-1939: Earl S. Johnson, president; Leland C. DeVinney, secretary; Lolagene Convis, treasurer; Nathan Bodin and Robert Winch, editors.

**COMPREHENSIVE BIBLIOGRAPHIES ON AMERICAN POSSESSIONS
AVAILABLE GRATIS**

Charles F. Reid, *editor-in-chief*, Bibliography of American Possessions, has announced the publication of

A bibliography of Guam, Series A, the first in a series of comprehensive bibliographies of all of the American Possessions; namely, Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, the Philippine Islands, Guam, American Samoa, the Panama Canal Zone, and the Virgin Islands. These bibliographies are being compiled through funds furnished by the Works Progress Administration. A staff of seventy research workers and linguists in German, French, Spanish, Italian, Russian, and Danish languages are employed in this work. The total expense to date is over \$100,000.

These bibliographies, of which Guam is the first one, are free to all public schools, public libraries, colleges and universities, governmental offices, and private foundations. Six hundred copies of Guam have already been distributed and five hundred more are available upon request.

The bibliography is classified into the following categories: agriculture, anthropology, archaeology, bibliography, botany, census, civil service, commerce, communications, description and travel, disasters, education,

forestry, general information, geography, government, health, history, hydrography, immigration, industry, legislation, maps, meteorology, military, miscellaneous, navigation, oceanic languages, periodicals, political economics, religion, social economics, sociology, statistics, surveys, and treaties.

There is also an alphabetical index of authors of the materials listed.

Interested persons may obtain copies of these bibliographies free of charge by writing to Dr. Reid, care of the College of the City of New York, Convent Avenue and 139th Street, New York, N. Y.

FOURTH INSTITUTE ON THE EXCEPTIONAL CHILD OF THE CHILD RESEARCH CLINIC

The Child Research Clinic of the Woods Schools, a private school for exceptional children at Langhorne, Pennsylvania, has just published the proceedings of the Fourth Institute on the Exceptional Child, which was held at Langhorne, Pennsylvania, on October 26, 1937. The brochure includes the papers which were read on the general subject, "New Contributions of Science to the Exceptional Child," by Louis A. Lurie, M.D., on "Endocrinology as it Relates to the Understanding and Treatment of the Exceptional Child," by Fritz B. Talbot, M.D., on "The Present Status of Mongolianism," by Esther Lloyd-Jones, Ph.D., on "Training Opportunities for Workers with Exceptional Children," and by Paul Schilder, M.D., on "The Clinical Implications of Motor Development in Children." There is appended a list of publications of the clinic.

The Child Research Clinic was founded to contribute, disseminate, and correlate information for both scientific and lay groups, concerning the problems of children with special emphasis on the exceptional child—the slow child, the problem child, the child with reading and speech difficulties, and the like.

The conferences of the clinic have aroused considerable interest among educators and workers with children. The sociologist cannot help being impressed, however, by the apparent lack of interest on the part of the clinic in the sociological approach to the problems of the exceptional child. There is little indication either in the conference programs or in the literature published by the clinic of an appreciation of the cultural factors in child behavior and personality. It is hoped that at some future date the clinic will devote one of its sessions to "Social and Cultural Factors in the Life of the Exceptional Child." No child lives in a social vacuum, but his

problems are conditioned at every stage by a rich and varied background of group, institutional, and community influences which must be thoroughly understood if any scientific comprehension of his problems is to be achieved.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO BROADCASTS ON SOCIAL AND
ECONOMIC PROBLEMS

After five years on the coast-to-coast network of the National Broadcasting Company the University of Chicago Round Table looks back upon a career of pioneering in the field of educational broadcasting. Today the program is carried weekly by fifty-four stations, from Maine to California, and in Hawaii.

In 1931 this program began on a Chicago station as an experiment in the broadcasting of informal discussions of contemporary problems by University of Chicago professors. The spontaneous nature of the program, in which no script is used, immediately caught the imagination of the listening public. The Round Table's technique avoided dogmatic expression of opinion, providing an opportunity for listeners to weigh the arguments of experts for themselves.

In 1933 the National Broadcasting Company offered the Round Table its Red Network facilities and the program has now built up a national audience of a million and a half listeners, according to a national research organization.

The Round Table has maintained as its objective the discussion of current problems of paramount interest to listeners. This has necessitated great flexibility in the planning and production of the program. Subjects for discussion are seldom chosen more than a week in advance of the broadcast, and a sudden move by a foreign power or new developments in Washington may result in the scrapping of program plans. Often participants in the Round Table have not met until an hour before broadcast time. The authoritative and timely nature of the Round Table has made it a favorite in high places—among government officials, educators, and leaders in industry.

By far the greater proportion of fan mail, however, comes from "ordinary" people scattered across the nation who find in these informal broadcasts a new approach to an understanding of current problems.

The listener is conscious of the fact that the three participants—whether professors or outside authorities, as is often the case—have no

propaganda to sell and no personal prejudices to defend. Often they do not reach a unanimous conclusion but the aim of the program is to present opposing viewpoints whether or not an agreement is possible.

Since March of this year the Round Table discussions have been made available to listeners in printed form. The broadcasts have been stenographically recorded and with the addition of material related to the subject in the form of pictographs or maps have a national circulation.

In an effort to stimulate student interest in topics of current economic and social significance, the University of Chicago has prepared, for distribution to schools and libraries, Round Table posters, to which cards containing information relating to coming programs may be appended. These cards contain announcements of subject, speakers, and suggested readings on the topic of the broadcast. This poster has already been requested by some two hundred libraries. Readers of *THE JOURNAL* who are interested in participating in this extension of the Round Table's educational influence may write for posters and weekly announcements to Brownlee Haydon, Radio Round Table, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.

BOOK REVIEWS

Contemporary Social Problems, revised, by HAROLD A. PHELPS.
New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1938, 820 pages.

In this revision of the author's original book of the same title published in 1932, the material has been brought up to date and partially reorganized, and several new chapters have been added.

The author firmly believes that definite social planning is necessary to achieve the inalienable rights of every individual: economic standards of social well-being, biological standards of physical and mental health, and social standards of cultural needs. These three standards form the framework for the volume. Part I deals with the economic sources of social disorganization; Part II with the physical and mental sources; and Part III with specific cultural sources of social disorganization.

With the factual analysis as a background, the author devotes the last part of the volume to "An Approach to Social Planning." This is a theoretical but forceful analysis of the development of social problems, the need for a scientific study of them, and the possibility and desirability of long-range planning to meet such problems.

The English Cooperatives, by SYDNEY R. ELLIOTT. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1937, 212 pages.

Following a brief summary of the industrial development in England after the Industrial Revolution, the author traces in detail the development of the coöperative movement from Rochdale to the present. Written in an interesting style and with many photographic illustrations, the book is a convincing argument for the still further expansion of the coöperative movement.

Although the development of coöperatives in the United States has made considerable headway, as summarized in the March 1938 issue of this journal, and three States now require instruction in consumer education in the public schools, there is still much to be done. Such books as this should give considerable impetus to its further development in America.

The Plough and the Sword, by CARL T. SCHMIDT. New York: Columbia University Press, 1938, 197 pages.

This book, the culmination of a year's research in Italy, seeks to evalu-

ate the theories of fascism regarding the agrarian population in the light of actual practice. The former was gleaned largely from fascist writings; the latter from research and observation. Although the author frankly states that complete impartiality is impossible, the material presented abundantly testifies to the truth of his statement that, "No data, whether favorable or unfavorable to Fascist avowals, have been deliberately ignored or distorted."

Several of the chapter headings suggest the findings of the author: "The Battle for Bread," "Landless Farm Workers," and "The Discipline of Poverty." Despite rigid censorship and governmental control of the means of communication, there is evidence of discontent among the agrarian population. Decreasing incomes and increasing governmental levies are creating an inarticulate but significant opposition which is persistent despite suppression. The author concludes that the results of fascism may be dazzling to the outside world with its public works, frequent displays, and tremendous military strength, but that the peasant does not share in such glorification.

The Politics of Modern Spain, by FRANK E. MANUEL. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938, 194 pages.

As weeks of civil war have dragged into months and years, hundreds of books have appeared. For the most part, they have ardently championed one side or the other and few have even attempted an impartial analysis. It is with genuine enthusiasm that the writer has read this very recent contribution in this field. The author begins his analysis with the seventeenth century. With vivid clarity he traces the struggle between a decadent feudalism and ineffectual centralized government. The many kaleidoscopic shiftings of rulers and parties, the almost continuous revolutionary plots and counterplots are passed before the reader.

The last fifty years are subjected to more detailed analysis as the author, skillfully and with a fine historical sense, summarizes the intrigues and internal struggles that led to the advance of Franco to the very outskirts of Madrid. The present struggle is seen in a new perspective as the author marshals facts rather than emotionalized prejudices. Regardless of the eventual outcome, this book will continue to interpret the complex factors which preceded the 1936 revolt.

Crooked Personalities in Childhood and After—An Introduction to Psychotherapy, by RAYMOND B. CATTELL. New York and London: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1938, 215 pages.

This volume provides a comprehensive and present-day picture of the better psychological methods of treatment of nervous and difficult children and at the same time brings out the underlying principles of psychotherapy. References are cited for the benefit of scholars who wish to make a fuller study of the subject.

The volume is chock-full of useful information interestingly written. Different ways of understanding and approaching the study of personality, factors in personality defect, the origins of maladjustment, and the limits of psychotherapy are passed in review. This is a volume for intelligent laymen as well as teachers and the medical profession.

Sickness and Insurance, by HARRY ALVIN MILLIS. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1938, 166 pages.

This very interesting and challenging book is divided into three divisions. The first summarizes the report of the Committee on Medical Care and includes excellent factual data. The second briefly reviews compulsory health insurance abroad with special attention given to Germany, Great Britain, and France. The third presents a brief history of the movement for compulsory health insurance in the United States and proposes a specific plan.

The author carefully analyzes the opposition of insurance companies and the American Medical Association and reviews the position of organized labor. An ardent advocate of social insurance, he has let the facts speak for themselves rather than resort to exhortation.

A Curriculum Study in a Mountain District, by HELEN RUTH HENDERSON. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937, 189 pages.

This is a doctoral thesis, but it is also an interesting description of what can be done to vitalize the school program in a rural area. During the period of the experiment, the curriculum was brought into close relationship to the needs of the community, and the schools became a living force in community life. Replete with significant suggestions and imbued with a forward-looking yet practicable philosophy of education, the book

should find a wider audience than is usually accorded a Doctor of Philosophy thesis.

Education on the Air, Eighth Yearbook of the Institute for Education by Radio, edited by JOSEPHINE H. MACLATCHY. Columbus: Ohio State University, 1937, 373 pages.

The Proceedings of the Eighth Institute for Education by Radio is evidence of the vitality and stability of the Institute. Those interested in educational radio have come to expect these annual reports for their radio libraries very much as one expects an old friend to call when passing through town, *i.e.*, with a single exception—the old friend does not always leave a mass of stimulating and challenging material for consideration.

This volume is divided into nine sections: (1) National Aspects, (2) Educational Stations, (3) Broadcasting in Schools, (4) Educational Broadcasting, (5) Radio Workshop, (6) Techniques in Broadcasting, (7) Exhibit of Recordings, (8) Research in Educational Radio, and (9) Bibliographies.

Dr. W. W. Charters inaugurated the Institute and now it has become an institution. The Institute is concerned primarily with techniques of educational broadcasting, hence a considerable emphasis on such matters in the Proceedings. The volume should be studied by all students in the field.

Seven Shifts, edited by JACK COMMON. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc., 1938, 271 pages.

The editor of this book, Jack Common, has collected seven manuscripts from seven workers in England; namely, a plasterer, a steelworker, a man whose almost constant unemployment dates from the World War, an employee in a gasworks, an operator of a market stall, a worker in a blast furnace, and a locomotive fireman. Each one tells of his employment and unemployment experiences, usually covering the period from the end of the World War to the present, and at the same time gives a picture of the type of work involved in each job.

There have been many attempts to let the world know "what's on the worker's mind."¹ Even though the locale is England, these stories make

¹See Whiting Williams's volume of that name, published by Scribner's in 1920, and numerous others.

good reading for Americans. It is to be hoped that some American workers, both men and women, and representative of as many different walks of life as possible, can be induced to do a similar type of writing in order that all of the population may have a better understanding of the current vicissitudes of existence of the rest of the population. The world could do with more of such volumes.

Life of J. H. W. Stuckenberg, by Dr. JOHN O. EVJEN. Minneapolis: Lutheran Free Church Publishing Company, 1938, 535 pages.

An admirable biography of an American pioneer in sociology who was also an authority in theology and philosophy. Of his ten major works analyzed in this book, four are on sociology, the remainder being mainly philosophical. The educational-sociological endeavor runs like a carmine thread through all of them, especially in sections about the press, pulpit, and platform, special attention being given to the problems of the college and university both home and abroad. The book details many rich experiences from Stuckenberg's life as college professor in Ohio, pastor of the American Church in Berlin, and as a member of the staff of the *Homiletic Review* where for fourteen years he edited the section on the Social Problem.

City and Church in Transition, by MURRAY H. LEIFFER. New York: Willett, Clark and Company, 1938, 301 pages.

This study of the medium-sized city and its organized religious life is unique in at least two respects: it was conducted by a sociologist and it deals with the church in representative committees of five types—commercial, industrial, industrial suburb, residential suburb, and resort city.

The approach to this study is clearly stated by the author: "If the church wishes to be an integral part of the community life and not simply a superimposed, otherworldly institution, it will strive to serve the people who are round about it, not merely as run-of-the-mill humans but as distinctive personalities in their own particular social setting."

The author neither condemns nor praises the church. Rather, he presents facts and summarizes strength and weakness as evaluated from the community approach. Concrete illustrations of specific programs and activities make the book of vital interest to both clergy and layman; the

approach and the methodology of research make it valuable to students of sociology and educational sociology.

Teaching for Health, by MARGUERITE M. HUSSEY. New York: New York University Bookstore, 1938, 312 pages.

The progress in the emphasis upon health in the schools marks a significant accomplishment in the period of readjustment in modern education. Moreover, the progress in the program of health instruction has been gradually modified in accordance with scientific development and educational philosophy. The beginning of health emphasis inspired by outside agencies concerned with the curtailment of the use of narcotics of various kinds was limited primarily to textbook instruction. From this beginning we have gone into various emphases, such as that of Health Crusaders, Knighthood of Youth, Health Groups, and other special groups which do not get at the root of the matter of health.

Dr. Hussey has presented a book that conforms both to the scientific requirements of health instruction and to the philosophy basic to educational procedure. In so doing she has made a worthy contribution to education relating to health.

Brooklyn Village 1816-1834, by RALPH FOSTER WILD. New York State Historical Association Series No. VII, Dixon Ryan, Editor. New York: Columbia University Press, 1938, 362 pages.

This is the first book of local history to be published in the New York State Historical Association series. "Not quite unique in method," as the editor points out in the foreword, "but a good example of one way at least in which local history can be well written." It is essentially a study of the institutional life of the village while it was governed under a village charter.

Part I traces the political development, Part II is devoted to religion and reform, Part III to the press, and Part IV to "cultural interests," with chapters devoted to the apprentices' library, fashionable education, the public-school system, and the lyceum. In a brief postscript the author points out the significance of these institutions in the later history of Brooklyn.

This study shows how little was deliberately planned in the social evolution of the community.

A Series of Students' Guidebooks for the Study of Contemporary Life, Volume II, illustrated by RUTH TAYLOR. Boston: Little Brown and Company, 1938, xvi + 679 pages.

Although this is the second book in a two-year sequence planned for use in the high school or junior college, its makers have also anticipated the possibility of less time being devoted to problems. The book may be used as a separate text independent of the companion volume. Of about the same size as its predecessor, it is made up of problems involving phases of contemporary life. There are ten units as follows: I. Adjusting Personality to Reality; II. The Place and Importance of Education; III. Economic Organization and Activities; IV. The Common Man's Present Outlook; V. Home and Family; VI. Plans and Planning; VII. "Sore Spots" in American Life; VIII. Providing for Security; IX. People Needing Special Care; X. Looking Forward to Work and Vacation.

Due to the nature of its contents, emphasis in this volume is focused more "upon the issues of the demanding present rather than upon the record of the past." The book is amply provided with more or less realistic "exercises" ranging in number from 32 (Unit X) to 101 (Unit VI).

Appraisal of Newer Elementary School Practices, by J. WAYNE WRIGHTSTONE. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938, 221 pages.

Pioneer research of great significance and fine quality is reported in this book. Wrightstone has succeeded in measuring some of the so-called "intangibles" in newer schools and the results show the superiority of experimental schools over conventional schools. The advantage of the newer school is shown by the higher rank of pupils both on standard achievement tests in various subject fields and on new measures for checking social relationships, creative expression, and critical thinking. These important phases of modern education in a variety of schools were studied by observation techniques which supplied data on both quantitative and qualitative differences between pupil achievement in newer type schools as compared with conventional schools.

Along with his own studies, Wrightstone presents an excellent summary of the development and status of newer practices in the public schools of the United States. He gives the historical background and condensed accounts of curriculum reconstruction in State and city school systems. This book is indispensable for teachers, supervisors, and administrators who want a clear interpretation of "activity programs" and the scientist's objective evaluation of the results from "progressive schools."

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